

Purification, Characterization, and Nucleotide Sequence of the Thermolabile α -Amylase from the Antarctic Psychrotroph *Alteromonas haloplanctis* A23*

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The α -amylase excreted by the antarctic bacterium *Alteromonas haloplanctis* was purified and the corresponding *amy* gene was cloned and sequenced. N- and C-terminal amino acid sequencing were used to establish the primary structure of the mature *A. haloplanctis* α -amylase which is composed of 453 amino acids with a predicted M_r of 49,340 and a pI of 5.5. Three Ca^{2+} ions are bound per molecule and its activity is modulated by chloride ions. Within the four consensus sequences, Asp-174, Glu-200, and Asp-264 are the proposed catalytic residues. The psychrotrophic *A. haloplanctis* α -amylase is characterized by a high amylolytic activity at low temperatures, a reduced apparent optimal temperature, and typical thermodynamic activation parameters. *A. haloplanctis* α -amylase has also a low thermal stability as demonstrated by the temperature effect on both activity and secondary structure. It is suggested that structure flexibility and lower sensitivity of secondary structure to temperature variations in the low temperature range are the main structural adaptations of the psychrotrophic enzyme. The unusual stacking of small amino acids around the catalytic residues is proposed as a factor inducing active site flexibility and concomitant high activity of the enzyme at low temperatures.

The properties of proteins from extremophilic bacteria are commonly used to gain further insights in the structure-function and structure-stability relationships of enzymes (1). Whereas analysis of thermophilic strains are well documented, enzymes from psychrotrophic bacteria have received little attention (2) and most functional traits of enzymes adapted to low temperatures have been gained from ectothermic invertebrates and vertebrates. As a rule, these cold-adapted enzymes are characterized by high k_{cat} and physiological efficiency (K_{cat}/K_m) as well as by a low and rather constant K_m at temperatures close to that of their natural environment. These enzymes display an apparent optimal activity shifted

towards low temperatures and manifest pronounced heat lability (3, 4).

These properties confer to cold-active enzymes a great economical value since enzymatically driven reactions can be carried out within a temperature range of 0–20 °C at which homologous mesophilic enzymes have their catalytic activity drastically reduced (5). One can also take advantage of the heat lability of these enzymes for selectively inactivating them in a complex medium as already proposed for an antarctic bacterial alkaline phosphatase (6).

The study of the structural and catalytic parameters of these cold-active proteins is still fragmental and the molecular basis of protein adaptation to cold remains unknown (4, 7). The adaptations of psychrotrophic enzymes to catalysis at low temperatures are not simply the opposite phenomenon of thermophilic enzymes. The latter are faced with the problem of stability at high temperatures, whereas the former have essentially to cope with the reduction of the enzymatic reaction rates near 0 °C in order to maintain adequate metabolic fluxes. A detailed analysis of the properties and structures of some psychrotrophic enzymes will certainly contribute to a better understanding of protein folding and protein dynamics.

In this context, we have selected an antarctic bacterium excreting α -amylase (α -1,4-glucan-4-glucanohydrolase, EC 3.2.1.1). This model enzyme was chosen because α -amylases from several organisms have been characterized and sequenced (8–10). The conserved amino acid residues involved in substrate binding, Ca^{2+} binding, and in the catalytic process have been assessed by site-directed mutagenesis and x-ray diffraction studies (11, 12). In addition, the refined three-dimensional structure of porcine pancreatic α -amylase and of two *Aspergillus* α -amylases are available (12–14).

Here we report the characterization of the *A. haloplanctis* α -amylase with special emphasis on the effects of temperature on the activity and stability of this enzyme. The primary structure of the psychrotrophic α -amylase deduced from the nucleotide sequence and partial amino acid sequencing is also discussed in relation to the adaptational strategy of enzymes to low temperatures.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES AND RESULTS¹

¹ Portions of this paper (including "Experimental Procedures," "Results," Figs. 1–6, and Tables I and II) are presented in miniprint at the end of this paper. The abbreviations used are: AHA, *A. haloplanctis* α -amylase; BAA, *B. amyloliquefaciens* α -amylase; Et-G-PNP, ethylidene-*p*-nitrophenyl maltoheptaoside; Hepes, *N*-2-hydroxyethylpiperazine-*N'*-2-ethanesulfonic acid; MES, 2-(*N*-morpholino)ethanesulfonic acid; PAGE, polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis; SDS, sodium dodecyl sulfate. Miniprint is easily read with the aid of a standard magnifying glass. Full size photocopies are included in the microfilm edition of the Journal that is available from Waverly Press.

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The nucleotide sequence(s) reported in this paper has been submitted to the GenBank™/EMBL Data Bank with accession number(s) X58627.

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DISCUSSION

The α -amylase excreted by the bacterium *A. haloplanctis* share most of its structural properties with other microbial α -amylases (i.e. molecular weight, isoelectric point, amino acid composition, ion requirements). Alignment of the four conserved regions with those of α -amylases of known three-dimensional structure (12–14) allows to locate the functional amino acids. The catalytic pair of aspartic acids of *A. haloplanctis* α -amylase would be Asp-174 and Asp-264, with Glu-200 acting in substrate binding. The primary Ca^{2+} -binding site essential in maintaining proper folding around the active site would involve the conserved Asn-88 and His-178. Beside

water molecules, Asn-136 and Asp-144 are two other potential ligands. The secondary Ca^{2+} -binding site would implicate Asp-174 and Glu-200. Finally, comparison with porcine pancreatic amylase indicates that Arg-172, Lys-224, and Lys-300 would be the chloride ligands of *A. haloplanctis* α -amylase

The enzyme is thus suitable for the analysis of molecular adaptations required to compensate for the reduction of enzyme activity inherent to low temperatures. In order to maintain adequate amylolytic activity for its metabolism, the antarctic strain synthesizes a catalyst characterized by high k_{cat} and physiological efficiency (k_{cat}/K_m) as well as by a lower E_a . Since such differences in the kinetic behavior have also been noted when comparing enzymes from ectothermic and endothermic species (28), the psychrotrophic *A. haloplanctis* α -



FIG. 7. Nucleotide sequence of the amy gene from *A. haloplanctis* A23. Upper panel: physical map showing some restriction endonuclease cleavage sites and α -amylase coding region (dashed box). The sequencing strategy is indicated, arrows showing direction and extent of sequencing. Lower panel: nucleotide sequence and predicted primary structure of the α -amylase precursor. Amino acids are numbered starting at the signal peptidase cleavage site. The cleavage site is located by a vertical bar. The potential promoter regions (-35, -10), the Shine-Dalgarno sequence (SD), the stop codon (***), and the inverted repeats (arrows) are indicated. Amino acids confirmed by N- and C-terminal sequencing are underlined. The four conserved peptides are boxed.

amylase displays an extreme trend of the cold adaptation characters.

The simplest view of the enzyme adaptations to catalysis at low temperatures is to postulate that the psychrotrophic enzyme possesses a more flexible structure in order to undergo rapid and reversible conformation modifications required by the catalytic cycle. If this is true, both psychrotrophic and mesophilic enzymes should have roughly the same conformation in the physiological range of temperature of the parent organism. This seems indeed illustrated by the CD spectra (Fig. 5) in which one can observe that $[\theta]_{222}$ of both enzymes reaches identical values at 5 °C for *A. haloplanctis* α -amylase and around 40 °C for *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* α -amylase. In addition, an improved structure flexibility would also explain how the cold-adapted enzyme takes advantage of the thermodynamic characteristics of its environment to ensure the formation of the enzyme-substrate activated complex. The enthalpic and entropic contribution to ΔG^* (Table II) agree with the fact that a more flexible enzyme structure would reach an activated conformation with less heat content and that the increase in free energy corresponding to the activated complex will be reached through a minimum of entropy change.

The loose conformation of the psychrotrophic enzyme implies a reduction of its structural stability which is well reflected by the increased denaturing effect of urea as well as by the thermostability curves, the shift of the optimal temperature of activity, and the fast disorganization of the secondary structures indicated by CD spectra. The ellipticity values (Fig. 5) also suggest that the folding of *A. haloplanctis* α -amylase is less affected by temperature variations in the low temperature range; concomitantly, its amylolytic activity is also less dependent of temperature (lower E_a or Q_{10}) than *B. amyloliquefaciens* α -amylase in that range. It is worth mentioning that this property in conjunction with the above mentioned protein flexibility can account for all the observed structural and kinetic characteristics of the antarctic enzyme.

By analogy with thermophilic enzymes which seem to rely on hydrophobic interactions to improve the internal packing arrangement of the protein (1), one would expect a reduction of these weak bonds in psychrotrophic enzymes. This is not reflected by the relative content of hydrophobic amino acid residues of *A. haloplanctis* α -amylase nor by its hydropathy profile. However, assuming that urea acts mainly by weakening hydrophobic bonds, the sensitivity of *A. haloplanctis* α -amylase to urea could indeed reflect a decrease of this type of bonds. Enhancement of thermostability has been observed by introduction of a disulfide bond in subtilisin (29). Accordingly, lowering disulfide linkage in *A. haloplanctis* α -amylase would be another way to increase the flexibility of the peptide backbone. This possibility is, however, ruled out by the lack of cysteine residue in most *Bacillus* α -amylases. On the other hand, we have previously suggested that the stacking of Gly around the catalytic residues of three psychrotrophic lipases could provide high active site flexibility (30). Interestingly, *A. haloplanctis* α -amylase also display an unusual concentration of Gly, Ala, and Ser on both sides of the conserved catalytic peptides. Such a concentration of small-sized amino acids, which could provide regions of chain flexibility (31), is not found in any other microbial or vertebrate α -amylase. Finally, the reduced thermal sensitivity of the secondary structures of

A. haloplanctis α -amylase before denaturation can be achieved by a delicate balance between weak bounds of opposite enthalpy of formation. Confirmation of these hypothesis requires the knowledge of the three-dimensional structure of the enzyme.

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Supplemental Material to
PURIFICATION, CHARACTERIZATION AND NUCLEOTIDE SEQUENCE
OF THE THERMOLABILE α -AMYLASE FROM THE
ANTARCTIC PSYCHROTROPH *Alteromonas haloplanctis* A23

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EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Sources. The heterotrophic aerobic strain *Alteromonas haloplanctis* A23 was isolated from sea water at the Dumont d'Urville antarctic station (60°40' S; 40°01' E). Selection for amylolytic activity was carried out on Marine agar 2216E (Difco) containing 0.1% OBR-amidon synthesized as described (15). The α -amylase from *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* (16) was from Sigma (A6380).

Purification of AHA. The antarctic strain was cultivated at 4°C for 3 days in 3.5 l of broth containing 10 g/l bactotryptone, 5 g/l yeast extract, 33 g/l NaCl, 40 g/l maltose, pH 7.6, vigorously aerated by air bubbling. Addition of maltose was found to induce α -amylase excretion in the supernatant by 3-fold. After centrifugation at 11,000 g, the culture supernatant was made 0.02% Na₂S₂O₈, then concentrated up to 400 ml and diafiltered against 50 mM Tris-HCl, 1 mM CaCl₂, pH 7.5 using a Minitan tangential flow ultrafiltration unit (Millipore) fitted with PTGC membranes (10,000 nmwl). The sample was then loaded on a DEAE-agarose column (2.5 x 40 cm) equilibrated in the above mentioned buffer and eluted with a NaCl linear gradient (500ml-500ml, 1 M NaCl buffer). Fractions containing amylolytic activity were concentrated to 10 ml and applied on a Sephacryl S-200 column (2.5 x 100 cm) eluted with 50 mM Tris-HCl, 1 mM CaCl₂, pH 7.0 followed by gel filtration on an Ultrogel AcA 54 column (2.5 x 100 cm) eluted with the same buffer. For further experiments, the purified AHA was conditioned in the appropriate buffers by gel filtration on PD10 column (Pharmacia) or lyophilized in 25 mM NH₄HCO₃.

Enzyme assay. Standard assay was carried out with the α -amylase EPS kit (Boehringer) using 3 mM Et-G₇-PNP as substrate and excess (23 U/ml) of α -glucosidase (EC 3.2.1.20) as coupling enzyme in 100 mM Hepes, 50 mM NaCl, 10 mM MgCl₂, pH 7.1 (17). Activities towards the synthetic substrate were recorded in a thermostated Uvicom 860 spectrophotometer (Kontron) and calculated on the basis of an extinction coefficient for Et-G₇-PNP of 8,650 M⁻¹cm⁻¹ at 405 nm. The effects of pH, ions and urea on the amylolytic activity were determined by the dinitrosalicylic acid method (18) using 1% soluble starch (Sigma) as substrate. In all experiments the pH was kept constant at the various temperatures.

Analytical procedures. The energy of activation (E_a) was determined from the slope ($-E_a/R$) of Arrhenius plots and the thermodynamic activation parameters of the amylolytic reaction were calculated according to the following equations:

$$\Delta G^\circ = \Delta H^\circ - T\Delta S^\circ$$

$$\Delta H^\circ = E_a - RT$$

$$\Delta S^\circ = 2.303 R (\log k_{cat} - 10.753 - \log T + E_a/2.303 RT)$$

Amino acid analyses were performed on native and carboxymethylated proteins hydrolysed for 24, 48 and 72 h using a Dionex DC300 amino acid analyser, equipped with a Waters dual wavelength colorimeter model 440 and a HPLC polystyrene sulfonic column (Waters, 0.4 x 25 cm). Concentration of the purified α -amylases was determined by amino acid analysis of the samples used.

Isoelectric focusing and polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis in presence of SDS or in non denaturing continuous conditions were run essentially as described by the supplier of the electrophoresis equipment (Hoeffer Scientific Instruments).

Calcium bound to AHA was measured using a Perkin Elmer 303 atomic absorption spectrophotometer, after dialysis of the enzyme solutions against 2x250 ml of high purity water at 4°C. The last dialysis solution was taken as a blank.

Circular dichroism spectra of protein dissolved in 25 mM phosphate buffer (pH 7.0) were recorded in a 0.1 cm path length cell under constant nitrogen flush using a thermostated dichrograph Jobin-Yvon Mark V. Data were expressed in terms of the mean residue ellipticity Θ . The mean residue weight of the mature proteins was calculated from the amino acid composition deduced from the nucleotide sequence. Sequence of *B. amyloliquefaciens* α -amylase (BAA) was taken from (19). The α helix content of the enzymes was estimated according to the following equations (20) where

$$\Theta_{222} = \Delta \epsilon \times 3300 \text{ and } f(\alpha) = (\Theta_{222} + 2,340)/-30,300$$

The NH₂-terminal amino acid sequence of the native AHA was determined using a pulsed liquid phase protein sequencer Applied Biosystems 477A equipped with on-line 120A PTH analyser and also a PI 2090E enhanced integrated micro-sequencing system including a PTH micro-analyser module (Porton Instruments). The COOH-terminal amino acid analysis was carried out on 10 nmol purified AHA dissolved in 200 μ l of 100 mM pyridine acetate buffer, 1% SDS, 0.1 mM norleucine, pH 5.7, digested with 0.1 nmol carboxypeptidase Y (Sigma). Following acidification by 5 μ l acetic acid and freeze drying of timed aliquots, the liberated amino acids were analysed as described above.

Cloning and sequencing. Genomic DNA of *A. haloplanctis* was partially digested with *Sau*3AI and the resulting fragments were inserted into the single *Bam*HI site of pSP73 (Promega). The ligated DNA was electroporated in *E. coli* RR1 cells and the transformants were selected on L-agar plates containing 100 μ g ampicillin/ml and 1% soluble starch. The temperature of growth and incubation was controlled as previously described (21). The AHA gene-containing DNA fragment was subcloned into the polylinker of the phagemid pGEM 3Z f⁺ and f⁻ (Promega). Single strand DNA was obtained by infecting pGEM 3Zf⁺ transformed *E. coli* JM109 cells with the helper phage M13K07, inducing the bacteriophage f1 replication (pGEM Single Strand System, Promega). The sequence was determined by the dideoxynucleotide chain termination method using Sequenase (US Biochemical Corp.). Synthetic oligonucleotides complementary to the plasmid sequences and internal sequences (provided by Eurogentec SA) were used as primers.

RESULTS

Effect of temperature on α -amylase excretion. The antarctic strain *Alteromonas haloplanctis* is able to grow from 0°C to about 25°C and is therefore referred to as a psychrotrophic bacterium (2). However, temperatures higher than that normally experienced by the bacterium (-2° to 4°C) have pronounced effect on AHA excretion: in comparison with cultures run at 4°C, the maximal amylolytic activity recorded in supernatants is only 13% at 18°C and 6% at 25°C. This effect of temperature on enzyme excretion is similar to that reported for antarctic *Moraxella* strains producing exolipases (22).

Characterization of the psychrotrophic α -amylase. The purification protocol described under the Materials and Methods section allowed us to obtain AHA in a fairly pure state as judged by gel electrophoresis in denaturing or non denaturing conditions as well as by isoelectric focusing (Fig. 1). This procedure lead to a 250-fold purification factor with about 60 % yield. The apparent molecular weight of the purified AHA has been estimated to be 50,000 and its isoelectric point to be pH 5.5. The calculated extinction coefficient was $\epsilon_{280} = 56.2 \times 10^3 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-1}$. Calcium assay determined by atomic absorption indicated that AHA is a metalloprotein containing 3 Ca²⁺ per mole of enzyme. The optimum pH value for activity and stability of the psychrotrophic AHA has been found near neutrality as shown in Fig. 2a.

Chloride ions are essential for activity of the psychrotrophic α -amylase. Desalting AHA and BAA in 50 mM Hepes-NaOH, pH 7.0 on a Sephadex PD 10 column results in the complete loss of activity in the case of the antarctic α -amylase. Addition of NaCl, but not Na₂SO₄, restores the amylolytic activity and a dissociation constant of about 3 mM was calculated from the saturation curve (not shown). The psychrotrophic AHA is also more urea-sensitive than BAA (Fig. 2b). Addition of 3 M urea in the reaction medium induces 80 and 60 % inhibition of the activity of AHA and BAA respectively.

Thermal stability. The denaturation curves of both the psychrotrophic and the mesophilic enzymes were recorded in various conditions (Fig. 3). The results can be summarized as follows: i) contrarily to the α -amylases from the *Bacillus* species, no stabilizing effect of Ca²⁺ was found for AHA; ii) chloride concentrations up to 0.5 M strongly stabilize AHA but not BAA; iii) even in optimal conditions, AHA is less stable than its mesophilic counterpart, a common character of cold-adapted enzymes (4).

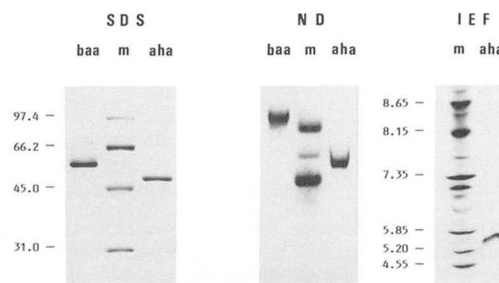


Fig. 1: Polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis of the purified AHA. AHA and BAA were analyzed by SDS-PAGE (SDS), non denaturing PAGE (ND) and isoelectric focusing (IEF). The following marker proteins (M) were used: SDS; phosphorylase b (97.4 kDa), bovine serum albumin (66.2 kDa), ovalbumin (45 kDa) and carbonic anhydrase (31 kDa). ND; carp parvalbumins 2, 3 and 4a. IEF; lentil lectin (pH 8.65 and pH 8.15), horse myoglobin (pH 7.35), bovine carbonic anhydrase (pH 5.85), β lactoglobulin A (pH 5.20), soybean trypsin inhibitor (pH 4.55).

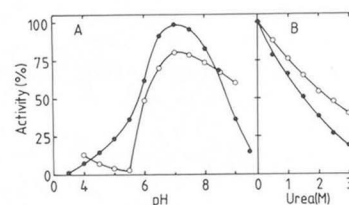


Fig. 2: Determination of pH optima (A) and effect of urea (B) on AHA.

A: effect of pH on activity (●) and stability (○) of AHA. The buffers used were 25 mM acetate NaOH, 20 mM NaCl between pH 3.5 - pH 5.5 and 25 mM MES, 25 mM Hepes, 25 mM Tris, 20 mM NaCl between pH 5.5 - pH 9.5. Activities were recorded at 25°C using 1 % starch as substrate in these buffers. Residual activities were recorded after 24 h incubation at 5°C in these buffers using Et-G₇-PNP as substrate.

B: effect of urea in the reaction medium of AHA (●) and BAA (○); 1 % starch as substrate in 50 mM Hepes, 20 mM NaCl, pH 7.0 at 20°C.

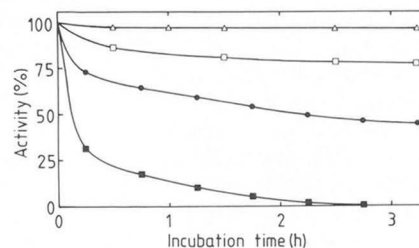


Fig. 3: Thermal stability of the α -amylases at 45°C. AHA (closed symbols) and BAA (open symbols) were incubated for the indicated periods of time in 50 mM Hepes, pH 7.0 in the presence of 10 mM NaCl (■) or 500 mM NaCl (●) with or without 5 mM CaCl₂ (same curves) and 10 mM NaCl (□) or 500 mM NaCl (○).

Circular dichroism spectra- The effect of temperature on the secondary structures of the psychrotrophic and the mesophilic enzymes have been studied by far-UV circular dichroism (Fig. 4). AHA displays a mean residue ellipticity $[\theta]$ at 222 nm of $-7,470 \pm 150 \text{ deg cm}^2 \text{ dmol}^{-1}$ at 25°C, corresponding to an α helix content $\alpha = 17\%$. This is a somewhat lower value than the $\alpha = 24\%$ recorded for BAA in the same conditions and for α -amylases from other *Bacillus* species (23,24). Whereas temperature shift-up from 5 to 55°C induces few alteration of the CD signal of the mesophilic BAA, spectra of AHA are strongly modified at temperatures higher than 40°C, indicating thermal-induced disorganization of the secondary structures (Fig. 4). At the upper experimental temperature, the psychrotrophic enzyme is not completely unfolded as shown by the comparison of the CD spectra recorded in the presence and the absence of 8 M urea (Fig. 4). Figure 5 illustrates the ellipticity variation at 222 nm of both α -amylases as a function of temperature. BAA displays a monotonous ellipticity decrease suggesting that the protein becomes progressively less compact as the temperature increases. The behaviour of AHA is more complex: ellipticity variations are less pronounced in the low temperature range and a sharp denaturation transition occurs at 40°C.

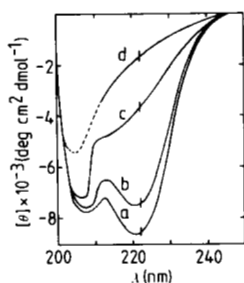


Fig. 4: Far UV circular dichroism spectra of AHA. Spectra were taken in 25 mM phosphate buffer (pH 7) at 5°C (a), 25°C (b), 55°C (c) and at 25°C in the presence of 8 M urea (d). Protein concentration: 20 μM . Vertical bars indicate the maximal signal oscillation at 222 nm.

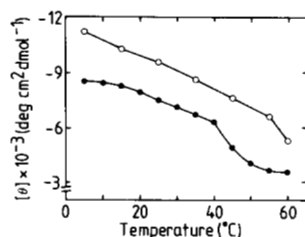


Fig. 5: Temperature dependence of Θ_{222} of α -amylases. The mean residue ellipticity at 222 nm of AHA (●) 20 μM , mean residue weight of 108.9, and of BAA (○) 13.5 μM , mean residue weight of 113.5, are plotted as a function of the experimental temperature.

Effect of temperature on activity- The thermodependence curves of the amylolytic activity of the psychrotrophic and the mesophilic enzymes are shown in Fig. 6. One can observe the drastic shift towards low temperatures of the apparent optimal temperature of activity of AHA. Also noticeable is the higher k_{cat} (67 s^{-1}) of this enzyme, being 9-fold the value of the mesophilic enzyme at 5°C. The physiological efficiency (k_{cat}/K_m) of the cold-adapted enzyme is about 100-fold greater in the temperature range of 5–25°C as a result of its low and stable K_m for Et-G₇-PNP (0.2 mM and 2.25 mM at 15°C for AHA and BAA, respectively).

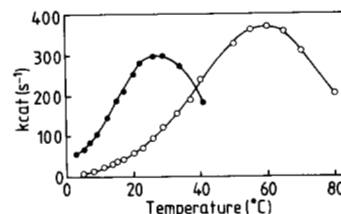


Fig. 6: Effect of assay temperature on k_{cat} of α -amylases. Amylolytic activity of AHA (●) and BAA (○) were recorded at increasing temperatures using Et-G₇-PNP as substrate.

The above mentioned thermodependence curves have been used to construct Arrhenius plots and to calculate activation energy parameters of the amylolytic reaction. As shown in Table I, both amylases have a comparable ability to reduce the activation energy barrier of the reaction but the contribution of the enthalpy term (ΔH^\ddagger) and the entropy term ($T\Delta S^\ddagger$) to this free energy of activation (ΔG^\ddagger) is strikingly different.

TABLE I - Thermodynamic activation parameters for AHA and BAA at 15°C

Parameter	AHA	BAA
k_{cat} (s^{-1})	187 ± 5 (3)	34 ± 1 (3)
E_a (kJ mol^{-1}) ^a	73 ± 1 (15)	99 ± 2 (12)
ΔG^\ddagger (kJ mol^{-1})	58 ± 1	62 ± 2
ΔH^\ddagger (kJ mol^{-1})	71 ± 1	97 ± 2
ΔS^\ddagger ($\text{J mol}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$)	46 ± 3	122 ± 6

^a experimental energy of activation below 15°C

Amino acid sequence determination- 40 N-terminal degradation steps could be achieved on 105 pmol of protein giving rise to 7 % of final yield at the last step. The kinetics of C-terminal amino acid liberation by carboxypeptidase Y is given in Table II. The derived N- and C-terminal amino acid sequences are underlined in figure 7.

TABLE II - Release of COOH-terminal amino acids from purified AHA

incubation time min	amino acid released mol / mol protein				
	Ser	Ala	Thr	Asx	Leu
2	0.5				
5	0.8				
10	1.1	0.2			
20	1.3	0.7			
30	1.9	0.8			
60	2.3	0.9	0.4	0.2	
120	2.4	1.0	0.6	0.3	0.2

the deduced carboxyl-terminal sequence is -Leu-Asx-Thr-Ser-Ser-Ala-Ser-COOH

Cloning and sequencing the amy gene- The structural gene of AHA was cloned from a genomic library of *A. haloplanctis* A23. In order to circumvent the thermal denaturation of the cloned gene products, *E. coli* transformants were allowed to grow overnight at 25°C and were then incubated at 0°C for 48 h. Among 30,000 transformants screened by iodine vapours, one clone forming a clear halo of starch hydrolysis was detected. The recombinant plasmid conferring amylolytic activity to *E. coli* was isolated and the AHA gene was sequenced on both strands. The nucleotide sequence, 3,352 bp in length, is shown in figure 7 along with the region coding for the cold active α -amylase and the flanking sequences. Upstream from the ATG codon are short sequences that may function as Shine-Dalgarno translational initiation site and -35, -10 promoters (25). The open reading frame is terminated by a stop codon followed by inverted repeat sequences which may function as transcriptional termination signals. The N-terminal amino acid sequence determination of the native AHA allowed us to locate the signal peptidase cleavage site which fulfils the -3, -1 rule (26). The leader peptide, composed of 24 amino acid residues also follows the general pattern of prokaryotic signal sequences (27). The deduced primary structure of the mature AHA is composed of 453 amino acids with a predicted M_r of 49,340, in good agreement with the electrophoretic estimation. Boxed in figure 7 are the four peptides conserved in all α -amylases. It should be mentioned that removal of the sequence spanning 5' from the first *Hind*III site strongly reduces amylolytic expression in *E. coli*. Such a property suggests the occurrence of a regulatory element, called *amyR* in *Bacillus* (8). This aspect will be discussed elsewhere.